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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this publication is to link educators to some of the resources of social psychology, and to offer ideas and tools for use in enriching whatever role educators may play in elementary, secondary, or professional education. It briefly surveys the ingredients and dimensions of social psychology and then examines ten areas of educational practice which can benefit from the application of social-psychological resources. These areas include social psychology applied to: (1) curriculum content, (2) the teacher's role in the classroom learning process, (3) the functioning of the classroom peer group as a learning group, (4) staff development and leadership, (5) the development and operation of the school building, (6) the development of the school community, (7) the development of the larger socialization community, (8) the recruiting, training, and utilizing of the human resources needed for quality education, (9) future projections for educational planning, and (10) the utilization of social-psychological knowledge for improving education and coping with resistance to change. Also included is a "Tool Kit" of additional available resources for elementary and secondary educators. (Author/DE)

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SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY: A RESOURCE FOR ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATORS

by

Ronald Lippitt

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DEDICATION

This paper is dedicated with deep affection and appreciation to the late Robert S. Fox. Many of the applications of social psychology presented here were explored during my twenty years of deeply-rewarding collaboration with Bob Fox. His recent and untimely death has not ended the inspiration of his leadership in linking the methods, values, and insights of the behavioral sciences with the everyday problems of education.

Ronald Lippitt
January 1975

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FOREWORD

Ronald Lippitt's paper is one of a number of publications of ERIC/ChESS and SSEC intended to help educators understand the nature of the various social science disciplines and the contributions that the social sciences can make to education. Papers have been published, or are to be published, dealing with economics, geography, anthropology, world history, American history, political science, psychology, and sociology. The papers include surveys of trends in the teaching of the various disciplines at pre-college levels and ideas and resources for the teaching of these subjects, both as independent courses and as parts or aspects of courses.

In addition to covering the various ways in which social psychology has been used as content in the curriculum, Lippitt's paper is unique in the range and depth of its suggestions for *applications* of the discipline to the understanding of educational problems and to the creative planning and implementation of educational change. Social psychology as curriculum content, while important, is only one of ten applications of social psychology to education described by the author. Other applications deal with the classroom peer group, roles of the teacher, staff development, community relations, and educational planning.

This paper is a distillation of the wisdom of contemporary social psychology, as seen by one of the most effective practitioners of our day. It is based on Lippitt's lifelong experience in teaching, consulting, and writing about--and planning and implementing--organizational change. It should be of inestimable value to all who want to understand better and work for constructive change in educational systems.

Irving Morrissett
Director, ERIC/ChESS
Executive Director, SSEC

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SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY: A RESOURCE
FOR ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATORS

by

Ronald Lippitt

Introduction

The discipline of social psychology has emerged, mostly in the last fifty years, because so many of the questions for study posed by psychologists and sociologists required bringing together facts about individual personality and development with facts about the influences and phenomena of the social environment made up of other persons, groups, organizations, communities, and societies.

Were people's likes and dislikes toward other persons caused by psychological events in their past experience? Or by the ways others felt and thought who were closely related to them? Or by messages they received from the larger society in which they were imbedded? Or what?

Were behaviors of parents and teachers determined by their personality make-up? Or by their past experience with their own parents and teachers? Or by the values and behaviors of other parents or teachers they related to? Or because of how and what they were taught about being parents or teachers? Or by societal definitions of parent and teacher roles? Or what?

And there were always questions about how heredity and environment interacted, and whether the group determined the role of the leader or the personality of the leader created the style of the group. And whether the organization molded the man or similar types of individuals clustered together to create certain types of organizations.

So some sociologists and some psychologists began to define their focus of interests as social-psychological and to call themselves social psychologists--developing courses, doctoral programs, and professional associations. And what they were interested in studying and writing about has become defined as the behavioral science discipline of social

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psychology. Social psychology is a cluster of concepts, research methods, focal inquiry questions, and a substantial body of research-based knowledge developed and defined by social psychologists.

As a focus for elementary and secondary teaching, this discipline has not yet been separated out as a curriculum area although many of the contents and principles of social psychology are taught in various parts of the curriculum and a few courses have been offered.

The potential usefulness of the resources of social psychology for the enrichment of the curriculum, the improvement of the quality of the school as a learning culture, and the improvement of teacher education is tremendous. The contributions are already substantial but the great acceleration in the utilization of social psychology which can be expected still lies ahead in elementary and secondary education.

The Purpose of This Document

Our purpose here is to link educators to some of the resources of social psychology, not as an academic exercise, but as useful ideas and tools for use in enriching and strengthening whatever role they may play in elementary or secondary education or in training professionals for roles in the educational system.

In this introduction, we will briefly survey some of the ingredients and dimensions of social psychology and then cite ten areas of educational practice which can benefit greatly from the application of social-psychological resources. In the main body of this paper, we will illustrate and discuss the utiliza ion of social psychology in each of the ten areas, as well as describe ways in which social psychologists themselves can be utilized as resources. We will conclude with a Tool Kit of Available Resources which lists additional resources, in six different categories, for elementary and secondary educators.

Some Dimensions of Social Psychology as a Resource for Education

Educators think about the various elements of the educational system which they must deal with and develop in order to create a well-operating learning culture--the pupil as an element, the classroom group, the faculty, the building, the total district, and the community. Social psychologists think about the elements of the social system which they need to focus on

in order to study the dynamics of social process and social structures--the social behavior of the individual, interpersonal relationships, interactions of a small group, the organizational system, the intergroup system, and the community. A commonality of interests between educators and social psychologists is apparent.

The school system is one of the variety of social systems where social psychologists have studied the phenomena of social behavior and the operation of social systems. The findings from their general studies and from the more specific studies of educational systems provide a resource of knowledge available for educators to utilize in their policy decisions, in planning, and in action to make the educational system work effectively. As we will see later, this process of utilizing social-psychological knowledge as an educator is in itself a social-psychological problem which has been much neglected until very recently.

If we look at social psychology as one of the behavioral science resources available to help develop and improve the functioning of the educational system, with its many processes and structures, we can identify particular aspects of social psychology as resources including the posing of useful inquiry questions and the presentation of a variety of methods of inquiry.

Posing useful inquiry questions. Many of the things that puzzle educators have been seen as challenging inquiry issues by social psychologists.

1. At the level of the *individual as the social unit*, they have been challenged by such questions as:

   What are the causes of irrational prejudice toward those who are different socially, racially, or ethnically; or toward those who are different in nationality?

   How does the social-economic background of individuals affect their role as learners or teachers in the classroom?

   How does one's position and role in the family affect one's attitudes and performance as a learner in school?

   In what ways does one's evaluation of self affect one's perception of others, behavior toward others, and performance as a member of the classroom learning group?

2. At the level of *interpersonal relations*, there are such challenging social-psychological inquiry questions as:

   What are the reasons that some children are accepted and

others rejected by their peers in the classroom group?

How does the way one is perceived by and reacted to by one's peers influence one's motivation to learn?

How do the teacher's expectations about a child's attitudes and behavior influence the teacher's behavior toward that child as a learner?

How do the interactions between the male and the female members of the classroom group change with age levels?

How are boys and girls different in their reactions to the expectations and procedures of the educational system?

3. At the level of *classroom interaction*:

How do classroom norms about collaboration with the teacher develop and operate?

What are the bases of collaboration and competition between peer leaders and the teacher in the operation of the classroom group?

What are the causes of competition or cooperation between students when working on learning tasks?

What are the conditions that lead to peer acceptance or rejection of pro-teacher or anti-teacher attitudes and behaviors of fellow students?

4. At the level of *faculty functioning*:

How does the principal's leadership role affect the motivation and performance of the teacher in the classroom?

How does participation in goal setting and planning affect the readiness of teachers to accept and exchange new educational practices?

How does the principal's influence with personnel higher in the school system affect his or her acceptance and effectiveness with the staff group?

What kinds of leadership behaviors in faculty meetings are effective in promoting good problem solving?

5. At the level of *school building operation*:

How does the attitude of the administration toward school government affect the type of student leaders who are chosen by their peers?

How does the leadership style of the principal influence the vandalism and absenteeism of the student body?

What determines the positive or negative emotional attitudes and friendly or hostile behavior styles among the different age groups who occupy the same school building?

How does the type of interaction between principals and their teaching staffs affect the attitudes and behaviors of the student members in the school buildings?

6. At the level of *educational community*:

> How do the parents' perceptions of their acceptance or non-acceptance by the teachers influence parent support of the school and its program?
>
> How does involving volunteer helpers in the educational program of the school affect votes on bond issues and reactions to long-range plans?
>
> How do the intergroup conflicts in the community influence student relations in the school building?

These and many similar questions of great importance to educators are the special focus of social psychologists and educational psychologists who have developed social-psychological interests. Those who have been trained in educational psychology are more likely to be interested in factors related to learning performance and educational achievements and those trained in social psychology tend to be more interested in phenomena of group norms, interaction process, group conflict, leadership and influence, and cooperation and competition. The facts that have been discovered by social psychologists about these questions and the ways they have developed for thinking about them are a major resource for all of the participants in the educational process--administrators, counselors, teachers, parents, and students.

Presenting a variety of methods of inquiry. Another aspect of the discipline of social psychology that has importance for the practice of education is the variety of inquiry methods and tools that have been developed to collect facts and do analysis about the types of questions indicated above.

Whenever educational practitioners want to assess a problem, get information on how students or teachers or the community are thinking about a particular question, or get a picture of what is going on in the classroom as educational practice, they face a puzzling question of just how much information they need and from whom in order to acquire a valid information base for making interpretations and judgments. Social psychologists, along with statisticians, have done a great deal of work on developing "people sampling" and "time sampling" in order to ascertain how many people need to be interviewed or questionnaired to get a valid picture of the thinking of a given population, such as the community, the faculty, or the student body. They have also worked on how many observations one needs to make and for how long a time in order to

get a valid picture of what is going on in a classroom, faculty meeting, or any other social interaction situation which the educator must accurately assess. Without some understanding of the sampling method used in social-psychological investigation, the educational practitioner is likely to fall into the trap of drawing incorrect inferences from insufficient or skewed data, or of wasting resources by gathering too much information.

Some social psychologists have also had a special interest in helping educators discover the role of "participant observer." Through such a role practitioners can use a plan of objective record keeping to enrich and objectify the data used for making educational decisions and taking action.

Social psychologists have been involved in the development of a wide variety of interview methods to get information from individuals about their intention, their attitudes, their expectations, their values, their feelings, their predictions, and many other types of information needed by both researchers and educational practitioners. One of the interesting recent developments in interviewing has been the group interview procedure whereby small groups of five or six individuals of different orientations or from different roles, such as student, parent, and teacher, are interviewed collectively. This provides the stimulus for triggering differences among the respondents and provides the interviewer with an opportunity to observe the interactions of the interviewees in the group setting. Another aspect of interview methodology is the coding of the information from the interviews so that what the various interviewees have said can be compared and compiled to give a valid picture of the findings from the total interview effort.

Perhaps the most widely used tool of the social psychologist is the written questionnaire designed to elicit all types of information from respondents, including students, parents, teachers, administrators, and community members. A great deal of research has been done on the best ways to construct questionnaire schedules which get the appropriate information. Educators who have consulted with social psychologists about questionnaire schedules they have been developing have usually received very valuable help in making their questionnaire easier, more adequate, and more acceptable to respondents.

Social psychologists and child psychologists have probably been the most active in developing systematic observation as a method of inquiry. Observation methods represent a very important addition and complement to the methods of interviewing and questionnairing. Some of our most confronting educational research tells us that there is often very little relationship between the intentions or plans which administrators or teachers have and what they actually do when their behavior is observed rather than their intentions assessed. During the past few years several educators, such as Ned Flanders and Edmund Amidon, have made important uses and adaptations of observation methodology in order to study the actual learning process which goes on in classrooms through the interaction between students and teachers, and students and students. These findings have shed a great deal of light on the reasons for low or high involvement of students in learning activities and how the differences between teachers' styles affect student learning activity.

Time sampling techniques are a very important part of observation methodology. Administrators who drop into a classroom "for a few minutes" once a month probably have a very inadequate basis for making any judgments, and unless they had some pre-designed schedule of "what to look for," they serve as very inaccurate recorders of the significant aspects of the interaction process in those classrooms they observe.

Another type of methodology might be called "records analysis." Many of the things that go on in a school system--tardiness, absenteeism, sickness, promotions, violations of rules, membership in various activities, achievements--are recorded on various kinds of record sheets. In their own investigations social psychologists have found many ways of meaningfully tabulating and analyzing these kinds of records to draw conclusions about social climate, social relations, administrative leadership, and many other types of phenomena. Increasingly, educational practitioners are expected to do meaningful evaluation of their educational efforts. They could do much of this economically and efficiently if they would create meaningful record-keeping methods and set up procedures for utilizing the data to improve their programs.

Perhaps one of the most helpful methodologies which social psychology has contributed to education has been the techniques and strategies of action research. This methodology, developed by Kurt Lewin and his

students, emphasizes the importance of involving members of the population to be researched in the planning of the data collection activity and in the actual collection of the data (for example, as interviewers or observers). A key aspect of this methodology is the procedure of feedback sessions with the population being studied. Lewin emphasized that there will be a greater readiness to utilize the data if the participants have been involved in the planning and collectiong of the information and are co-participants in the interpretation of the findings--participating in face-to-face feedback sessions and looking at the data and action implications along with the investigators. Many educational administrators have taken this lesson seriously and have demonstrated that the involvement of students, parents, or citizens in both survey activities and feedback sessions has resulted in non-defensive motivation to change and to use the findings. Seldom do findings from such a survey "stay on the shelf."

Pursuing the types of inquiry questions indicated above and utilizing the various methods briefly identified here, the social psychologists have developed very significant resources for educational practice. The concepts which have been generated for interpretation of data and the generalizations which have been developed from research findings can be useful in a number of different ways to promote the quality of education.

The following section will list ten areas in which social psychology can be applied as an educational resource. Following this introduction, examples of social-psychological implications for educational strategy and practice are provided. Spelling out in detail the applications of social psychology in any one of these ten areas, however, would exceed the scope of this document. Therefore, only two or three significant illustrations for each area of application are provided. Additional resources are listed in the Tool Kit of Available Resources which will help the reader pursue further an area of particular interest.

Ten Areas of Educational Practice for Applying Social-Psychological Resources

1. Social psychology as curriculum content. Social-psychological concepts, principles, and methods are scattered throughout the social studies curriculum, particularly in some of the new interdisciplinary

efforts. However, there has been practically no presentation of social psychology as a discipline any place in the curriculum.

2. Social psychology applied to the teacher's role of classroom learning processes. Since students are coercively influenced to attend school, the role of the teacher as classroom leader is fraught with many problems which have been of great interest to social psychologists.

3. Social psychology applied to the functioning of the classroom peer group as a learning group. Many of the influences toward attitude change, toward acceptance of the teacher's role, or toward putting energy into the work of learning come from the dynamics of the peer group. Social psychologists are particularly interested in this problem.

4. Social psychology applied to staff development and staff leadership in the school building and school system. Although industry has used social psychology most thoroughly in this area, more and more school administrators and school boards are also recognizing the importance and the necessity of programs for staff development and inservice training for administrators and supervisors.

5. Social psychology applied to the development and operation of the school building. The development of a school climate which supports and facilitates creative education is one of the central challenges of school administrators. Social psychologists have been very interested in this problem of organizational social climate.

6. Social psychology applied to the development of the school community. The functioning of the educational program of the school building depends on far more than just students, teachers, and administrators. There are other types of professional and paraprofessional support personnel as well as volunteers and the key population of parents. Developing communication and collaboration between these various groups is indeed a challenge for the school administrator.

7. Social psychology applied to the development of the larger socialization community. The school system is only one of some seven vested interest groups in the community which have some delegated responsibility for rearing, protecting, and educating the young. Much of social-psychological knowledge about intergroup relations is relevant here.

8. Social psychology applied to the recruiting, training, and

utilizing of the human resources needed for quality education. Social psychology has many relevant resources to offer to the preservice and the inservice training of all types of educational personnel.

9. Social psychology applied to future projections for educational planning. There are many kinds of projections of the future, including political, economic, and technological. And there are social-psychological projections based on social-psychological theory and observations which are among the most critical for educational planning.

10. Social psychology applied to the utilization of social-psychological knowledge for improving education and coping with resistance to change. One of the sad facts in the functioning of our total society, as well as every school system, is the lack of utilization of systematic social knowledge as a basis for policy making, planning, and action taking. In recent years a growing number of social psychologists have been applying social-psychological research methods and theories to the analysis of the reasons for the lack of utilization of social knowledge. In addition, they have used these methods to discover the conditions under which relevant social knowledge will be identified and effectively used to actually influence the functioning of the school system and the other parts of the community. The process of initiating and facilitating "planned change" is becoming a focal concern of social psychologists.

As we explore these ten areas of application, we believe that both educators and social psychologists will discover many challenges and opportunities for collaboration. Perhaps this framework will also help organize the many uses of social psychology which educators are currently making.

Using Social Psychology as Curriculum Content

Some Current Uses of Social Psychology in the Curriculum

One hundred and five curriculum programs and projects were retrieved through an ERIC search, utilizing descriptors which seemed to represent social-psychological orientations. Forty-three of the abstracts seemed to give evidence of some significant use of social-psychological concepts, although the discipline of social psychology was not identified in most cases. The sample probably provided a good representation of the current

types of utilization of social psychology in elementary and secondary curricula, even though it is a very small sample of the much wider base of unreported social studies projects and innovative programs. We have no indication of how aware the various curriculum developers and teachers were of social psychology as a substantive discipline and as a source of particular methodologies. Here are some of the places we found social psychology in the curriculum:

Focus on the family. We found a number of examples of the conceptual sequence of the family, the group, the institution, the community, and the society. In first and second grade units on the family, it was typical to find such social-psychological foci as "the roles of members of the family," "interdependence and interaction of family members," and "cooperation and competition among family members," with the mention of projects, games, filmstrips, and other participation strategies. Other programs were somewhat more sociological, with a focus on comparing families from different cultures (for example, Soviet family, Kibbutz family, Japanese family, northern Nigerian family, and Colonial family from Boston). Sociodrama and role playing were used in some programs to help make such comparisons more vivid and meaningful. The other focus on family was at the secondary level in home economics programs where the emphasis on family living was often linked with child development, child care, and field work with children, as well as with projects in studying one's own developmental history. The ingredients from social psychology in such programs usually included concepts of socialization, parent-child influence patterns, and some emphasis on sex roles.

Focus on social problems. Many of the programs centered on the study of social problems gave little evidence of awareness of social-psychological inquiry into social problems. Some programs did focus on such problems as the development of personal prejudice, the personal dynamics of making value decisions, the role of the peer group in influencing orientation to problems, and the potentialities of young people for taking action and coping with resistance to change. Other programs had units on improving human relations as a major social problem and utilized psychological and social-psychological concepts along with economic and political concepts. Other programs focused on

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conflict as a social problem area and, when dealing with controversial issues, made use of concepts from social psychology concerning interpersonal and intergroup conflict dynamics, along with concepts from other disciplines. Some utilized such concepts as ambivalence, alienation, dehumanization, unconscious defense mechanisms, and socialization to aggressiveness. There was relatively little focus on social-psychological aspects of strategies for conflict resolution, conflict management, and negotiation and conciliation.

Focus on intergroup relations. A substantial number of programs focused on interracial and interethnic relations and many introduced a multiethnic relations focus. In most of these programs, the social psychology of prejudice and stereotyping and issues of attitude change were the significant part of the program, often with self-study and survey inquiry projects. Many of the programs were quite didactic and evaluative, although others made substantial use of inquiry through role playing, simulations, field projects, and self-study activities. A number of projects in this area were quite self-conscious about the "interdisciplinary approach"--one which uses concepts from psychology, sociology, anthropology, history, and political science, as well as from scientific method. There was very little identification of social psychology as a separate area of disciplinary content. One project had the explicit purpose of "improving interpersonal relations among the high school students of our city high schools." It actively involved students in planning activities for the course and almost all of its content seemed to be based on social psychology.

Focus on generic human relations. Several curriculum reports indicated a broad focus on all types of human relationships, with such emphasis as "studying social interaction in order to help students explore their own potential and develop the skills of responding to the needs of others." Another program emphasized "accepting oneself, developing personal values, living with others, friendships and peer relations, alienation and rejection, appreciating those who are different ethnically, religiously, regionally and nationally." Some of these broader programs made interesting use of materials from drama and fiction. They made much more use of *concepts* from social psychology than of its active *inquiry methods* or the action-research methods of *participative learning*.

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Focus on social values. There seemed to be much interest in value inquiry as the entry into social studies, particularly at the upper elementary grades, getting the learners actively involved in value dialogs, decision making, and fact finding. These activities were often focused on exploring and clarifying value issues related to problems in the community, intergroup relations, conflicts within the school culture, and, less often, with value dilemmas in the development of self identity. There appeared to be much conscious effort to use good strategies of inquiry method in these projects and there was an important social-psychological emphasis on awareness of self as a mixture that included rationality, feelings, and prejudices. One very challenging psychological issue for social studies is how to help young people affectively identify with such macro ("at a distance") issues as "world-mindedness." This was a very important area of social-psychological experimentation in some of the projects.

Focus on occupation and life planning. Even though it is predicted that by 1980 75 percent of the jobs in our society will be human service jobs, there were very few examples of a curriculum emphasis on learning about and experiencing people-helping roles as occupational potentialities. A few projects, however, did provide opportunities for students to explore human services occupations and to have some field experience, such as tutoring and leading younger children, with class work focused on the skills involved in being effective as helpers of youngers, peers, and elders. By and large, these activities were extracurricular rather than core aspects of these social studies programs.

Focus on interpersonal sensitivity and relationships. Traditionally the social studies program, both elementary and secondary, has conspicuously omitted a focus of inquiry on here and now interpersonal phenomena. However, we found a number of recent elementary projects which did look at social learning in such a manner. They dealt with interaction situations in the classroom and in the daily life of the child, centering on these as the material for study and utilizing observation, role playing, and story and film episodes. There was considerable emphasis on the development of positive self-conceptions and interpersonal cooperation, and on legitimizing the expression of positive and negative feelings.

At the secondary level, we found very limited but important

experimentation with the use of the classroom group as a laboratory for the study of social relations and of such social-psychological phenomena as individual decision making, group decision making, leadership development, clique formation, scapegoating, and acceptance and rejection. Several creative teachers were experimenting with the use of the tools and exercises of applied group dynamics which have been developed and used so extensively with adult groups in human relations laboratories. Self-study was another focus of several secondary programs. For example, one program stated, "the major objective is for the teenager to examine his own values and behavior and those of his peers, and to help him to set goals that will help him get the most from the teen years."

Focus on communication and discussion. From those teaching the humanities at the secondary level, we found a number of curriculum sequences focusing on discussion method and communication, with an emphasis on human interaction and awareness of self. For example, one course on the discussion process had units for "acquiring awareness of self and relationship with others," "preparing self to function effectively in discussion," and developing "membership and leadership responsibilities and styles of participant behavior." The teachers of this unit had a background of training in speech departments rather than social science departments, but were still obviously making active use of the resource of social psychology.

An interdisciplinary focus. We found numerous efforts to convert traditional social studies into a framework of social science education with a conscious effort to identify and use the resources of the different social science disciplines. In most cases, the units of study focused not on the disciplines but on some particular problem to be analyzed, identifying concepts and methods from the different disciplines which were to be utilized in part of the inquiry effort. Teachers were provided with charts and tables showing the concepts derived from the different disciplines. Two twelfth-grade courses focused on sociology, social psychology, anthropology, economics, and political science and had units that presented the content and methods of each discipline and some activities that gave practice in applying the knowledge of the particular discipline. As far as we know, only one project, sponsored by the Social Science Education Consortium, has made a comparative analysis of the

disciplines, with an effort to derive core concepts generic to all the disciplines, as a basis for developing an interdisciplinary program. (Jung *et al.* 1966)

Focus on Psychology. Kasschau and Wertheimer (1974) have reviewed the teaching of psychology in the elementary and secondary schools, indicating that there have been two major types of emphasis--the fostering of mental health and positive psychological growth and the discipline-centered emphasis on psychology as a science, taught in much the same way as an introductory psychology course in college. There is no need to review the extensive analysis of these two co-authors. The major point to be made here is that the teaching of psychology with these two orientations has tended to select concepts from individual and personality psychology, on the one hand, or, when taught as a discipline-centered course, has tended to emphasize physiology and individual and experimental psychology rather than social psychology. Social psychology has received relatively minor emphasis in most of the psychology courses which have been reported, as well as in texts and other published resource materials.

Focus on social psychology and group dynamics. We found three programs in this category: one, a laboratory course for upper elementary students with social psychology as its framework; the second, an elective course in social psychology at the high school level; and the third, a course which focused on group behavior and group dynamics with an emphasis on observation. In each of these cases an effort had been made to derive core concepts of the discipline as a basis for organizing the learning activities and to give emphasis to the methods and tools which had been developed by social psychologists and adapted for use by students.

This will give the reader a brief overview of the variety of curriculum contexts in which the content and methods of social psychology are currently being utilized in elementary and secondary education. In such a rapidly developing field of educational innovation there are no doubt other foci and types of utilization which we have missed. At this point we would like to make a few observations about some of the problems of utilization of social psychology suggested by our review of these projects and programs.

Some Problems of Utilizing Social Psychology as Content in Curriculum Designs

Probably the most serious problem is that the concepts, research generalizations, and methods of the discipline have not been probed in any depth by curriculum developers. Consequently, developers have not been in a position to select the most important resources of the discipline. Rather they have utilized in a piecemeal fashion whatever concepts seemed appropriate to their curriculum focus, such as family, community social problems, or intergroup relations. As already mentioned, in only one project was there an effort to systematically derive the core concepts, generalizations, and methods in order to assess the nature of the resources available for curriculum development work.

Another related problem is that few if any of the projects seem to have developed a conceptual framework within which to orient the units of study and the designs for inquiry. An example of this type of framework is presented by Fox and others in their Social Science Education Consortium publication *A Framework for Social Science Education* (1973). Their framework, reproduced on page 17, is an example of an attempt to organize the dimensions of social psychology and related disciplines in such a way that curriculum units can be developed and evaluated in relation to the core concepts, core methods, problem priorities, and desired outcomes of the curriculum activity. We believe that this exemplifies the type of analysis which must be done if the resources of the social sciences are to be effectively utilized in curriculum development activities.

Another conspicuous lack in almost all of the projects which utilize social psychological concepts and principles is the absence of any systematic training in the use of the basic inquiry methods of social psychology. We believe it is even more important for curriculum content to stress competency in utilizing the methods of social psychology than to focus on the research knowledge and concepts generated by the scientists. Although there is a growing interest in getting participative inquiry activities into the curriculum, there is still very little effort to place a value on development of the skills of creating and using the basic tools of good inquiry.

This lack of focus on the "methodological curriculum" has tended to

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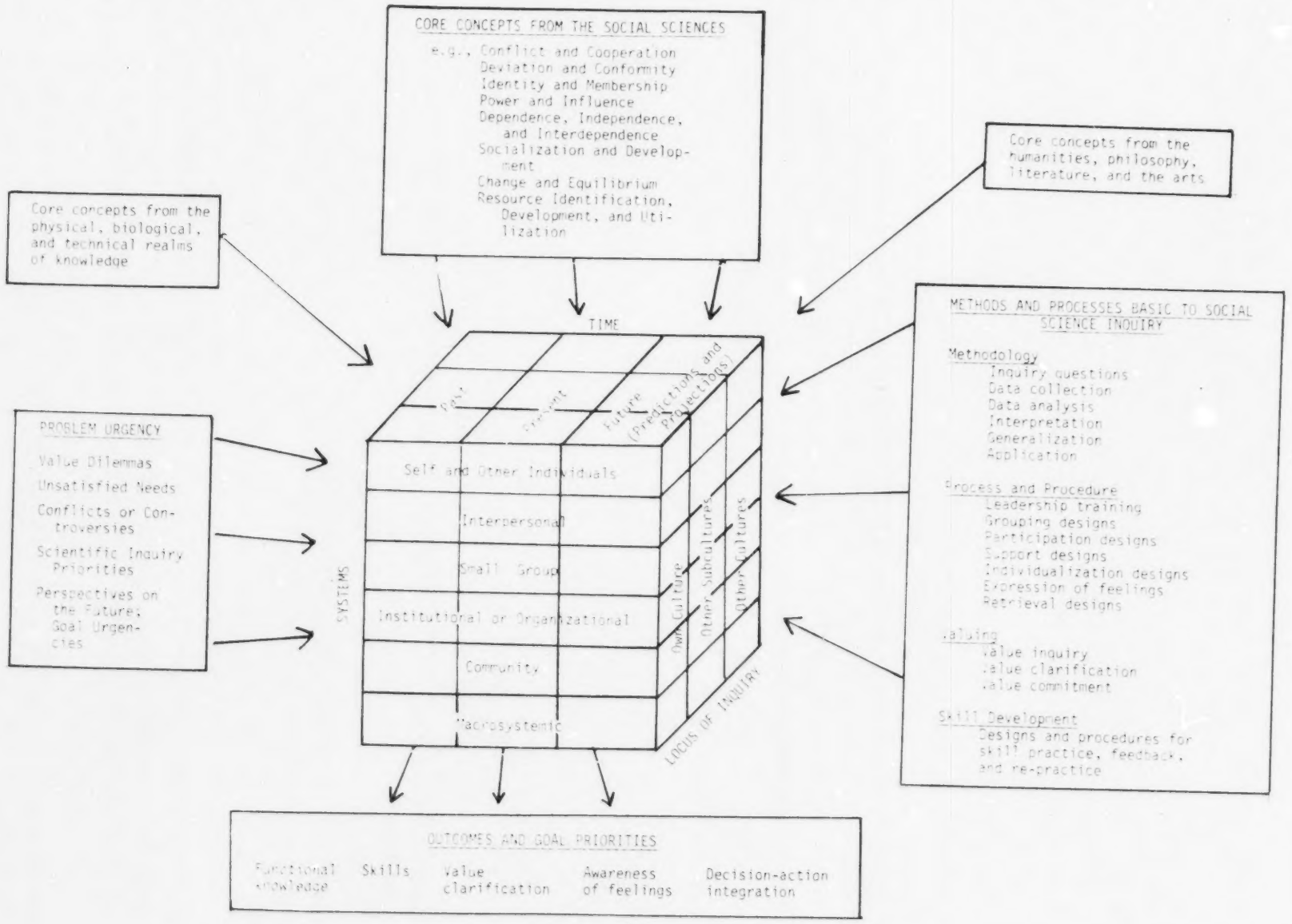
Conceptual Framework for a K-12 Social Science Curriculum (Fox *et al.* 1973, p. 15)



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produce a great many didactic and "programmed" learning activities rather than genuine self-directed inductive inquiry projects in which students have generated search questions and procedures for fact-finding.

In a discipline which has been developing as rapidly as social psychology, it is natural that elementary and secondary teachers will not have received very adequate training during their preservice education programs. It is natural, therefore, that they would feel somewhat cautious and inadequate about using the concepts and inquiry methods of the discipline. It seems unfortunate that many developers have paid little attention to the teacher education aspects of the various curriculum packages and materials. It is our observation that once the teachers find out how involving and meaningful social-psychological inquiry activities are for the students, they will become ready and eager for significant inservice learning opportunities, particularly opportunities for active learning projects similar to projects which they will, hopefully, offer their students.

Some Suggestions for Incorporating Social Psychology into the Curriculum

At the elementary level. It seems to us that the most effective social-psychological resources are relatively small units of study rather than total curriculum sequences. Therefore, teachers should be encouraged to find and try out some "mini-packages." In this way teachers are able to move cautiously in giving up their "tried and true" methods. They have a chance to assess the reactions of their pupils to new types of activities--ones which help students focus on why we behave toward each other the way we do, and encourage them to make direct observations of group life and conduct little inquiry projects with interview schedules and observation check sheets.

One of the most important orientations to be adopted by teachers is the attitude that they will learn along *with* their students, rather than feeling that they must be "the expert" before they will risk entering into a curriculum activity. From our experience, one of the most motivating types of social-psychological inquiry activity is for students to become involved in work with younger children, such as in the *Cross-Age Helping Program*, and to use these experiences as a basis for collecting data, drawing generalizations, and converting their findings into actions

rather than responses on tests. (Lippitt *et al.* 1969) The use of trigger tapes, or trigger films, or trigger role-playing episodes as a springboard for inquiry into the causes of social behavior is another very effective type of design for social-psychological learning projects.

At the secondary level. There is a wide variety of options to be explored here. Many have been indicated in our earlier analysis. Exploring and trying out the various types of people-helping roles as an occupational exploration is one of the most exciting undeveloped opportunities in the secondary curriculum. At the present time there is so little opportunity for students to explore some of the major types of occupational activities which they will be considering and making decisions about in a few years.

Role-taking and simulation activities represent another great potentiality. At the present time very few of the simulation packages on the market focus on social psychology, as contrasted to sociology, economics, and political science. Utilizing social research methods in inquiry projects is another one of the highly-motivating ways to explore the behavioral science disciplines in the high school. The many issues and traumas of operating in the peer culture and finding one's interpersonal identity point to the use of social psychology to help students develop inquiry projects focused on exploring, evaluating, and experimenting with their own interpersonal relationships. There is also a great challenge to get much more social-psychological content about group and interpersonal processes into the curriculum--content focusing on economic and political behavior and institutional, community, and national life. Many of the most interesting and challenging problems in these areas are social-psychological and can be studied by developing meaningful inquiry projects which make use of field work in the community.

With this brief survey of current trends and potential opportunities for the use of social psychology in the curriculum, we must move on to some of the other equally important foci for application of social-psychological knowledge and methods to the functioning of elementary and secondary education.

Applying Social Psychology to Instructional Leadership in the Classroom

Phenomena of the Classroom Leadership Situation

From the perspectives of their discipline, what are some of the troublesome things social psychologists see as important aspects of the instructional leadership situation in the classroom? Here are a few of the elements:

1. a leadership role coercively injected into the group by the institution,
2. cross-generation communication issues,
3. non-voluntary membership in the group,
4. imposed grouping decisions as to who will be with whom to make up the composition of the group,
5. externally assigned work tasks,
6. often meaningless and always imposed evaluation procedures for assessing achievement,
7. similar work assignments and expectations for all members of the group,
8. unclear definitions of success and lack of meaningful rewards for success,
9. uncomfortable working environment, and
10. collusive anti-teacher cliques.

One could go on with many additional observations, but these should be enough to indicate the perspectives of social psychologists. Given these, what are some of the implications for action--or for intervention, as the social psychologist might label it?

Implications for Improving the Effectiveness of Instructional Leadership Roles

If the imposed adult classroom leaders were well informed about some of the findings of social psychology relevant to the phenomena listed above, they could take action steps such as the following:

1. Identify and acknowledge the peer leadership in the classroom social structure and work out designs for collaborating with them in the leadership of the classroom group. A variety of sociometric tools exist

for assessing the leadership structure. In one classroom group, after the instructor had utilized such a tool and identified the leadership, he invited the top three student power figures (two of them actively anti-establishment) to meet with him and made the statement: "The school administrators and the Board of Education have said I'm supposed to be a leader in this classroom. I know from our survey, as I'm sure you do, that you are important leaders in this group. Could we consider what kinds of things the four of us could do as leaders to make things work better for everybody?" With this legitimization of their leadership, the student leaders were free to come out from "underground" and proved ready and able, as student leaders have in many situations, to work collaboratively on planning for the welfare of the total group in working out meaningful and interesting activities.

2. Recognize that social influence must be a two-way process. Unless the class members can feel they have a significant role in planning and decising making, they are not likely to become highly involved and committed to carrying through the learning tasks. If the goal feels external to them, it will not be a very significant source of direction and motivation. Therefore, the effective instructional leader finds a wide variety of ways to involve the total class in planning and decision making, and to utilize volunteer steering committees and group representatives to make the planning more efficient, and to develop peer leadership in order to help distribute leadership responsibilities. The total amount of student energy devoted to learning activity goes up dramatically when such processes have been meaningfully executed.

3. Provide optional choices of learning activities and subgroup memberships. Many of the problems of required activities and non-voluntary membership in the classroom group can be managed by the creative development of personal decision-making options in the choice of activities and of work partners for carrying out learning projects. Each subgroup can either delegate or choose its leadership and the leadership responsibility should be clearly understood and accepted by peers. The teacher can then function as a consultant to these peer leaders.

4. Jointly develop evaluation criteria and assessment procedures. Sometimes learning goals and contracts should be individual; sometimes

they need to be a collective decision and responsibility of the group. In either case it is social-psychologically sound to insure that the criteria for successful accomplishments are mutually agreed on and that the procedures for evaluating such accomplishments are clear. In many such situations teachers and students have been excited to discover that the achievements they really value are the development of skills rather than the ability to "give it back" on a test. Many ingenious ways for assessing the development of competence have been collectively agreed on.

5. Celebrate progress. The single most effective support for maintaining motivation to work on learning tasks is the clear recognition that progress is being made, which means that steps toward a goal have been defined and stages of progress can be identified. When teachers and students can mutually recognize and celebrate this movement, there is a great enhancement of motivation and of supportive interpersonal relationships.

6. Pay attention to the physical and social ecology of work. Effective learning usually requires intensive interaction in small groups of three to five. Therefore, grouping decisions are some of the most important decisions an instructional leader makes in designing an effective learning sequence. Various criteria for subgrouping are relevant to various kinds of learning activities. Sometimes the relevant grouping is in terms of the variety of talents, skills, and levels of sophistication that are needed to make a good work group. Sometimes it is purely a matter of optional interest choices. Other times it is in terms of who can best represent the total group in carrying out some inquiry mission.

For such subgroup activity to be carried out productively, the physical ecology of the work space is very important. Can chairs be easily clustered? Are the work tables far enough apart so that groups do not interfere with each other? Are there places where subgroups can go to do work if they are going to make quite a bit of noise, such as making a tape recording or planning a role-playing episode?

7. Periodically review the process of work. If the group members are to become interested in and committed to continuing the effectiveness of their work and their collaboration, it is important to use data collection procedures which will provide feedback to the group or the

subgroup. Such feedback will tell the members how well they are doing and give them an opportunity to consider ways of improving the effectiveness of their collaboration. A wide variety of tools for conducting such brief "process stop sessions" have been developed by social psychologists.

These seven recommendations for action are a sample of the types of implications from social-psychological research that can be drawn and utilized to cope with some of the crucial phenomena of instructional leadership indicated earlier. A closely related set of phenomena are noted in the next section.

Applying Social Psychology to the Functioning of the Classroom Peer Group

Phenomena of Peer Group Operation in Learning Groups

Social psychologists find it very important to look at the classroom group as an example of a peer group which faces certain problems and opportunities for development and must cope with various kinds of issues of group operation. There is the important fact that the class group is supposed to facilitate the individual learning of each member. This makes it quite different from those task groups which have a single product as the goal of the group. What have social psychologists discovered to be important issues about peer group functioning in the classroom?

1. It has been remarkable to discover that in many classrooms the majority of the students have the notion that "helping each other" is connected with the notion of cheating. They have been taught by their socialization into the educational system that helping each other is a negative thing.

2. Students' failure to help each other is also attributable to family experiences with sibling rivalry, as a result of which classroom peers tend to have a competitive posture about educational work tasks rather than to see collaboration as a desirable pattern.

3. In many classroom groups there is a tendency for impulsive anti-learning and anti-teacher students to gain great influence as leaders because the other students maintain a "collusion of ignorance"

about their feelings toward these rebels. Each student assumes that the others are supporting and sanctioning such behavior and that therefore their own negative feelings must be in the minority. Actually, questionnaires very frequently indicate that most of the students feel negative toward such anti-teacher or anti-school behavior and would like to see it rejected; but fear to take the initiative because of their assumptions about the way others are feeling.

4. Peer leaders often feel frustrated by the lack of recognition and their leadership by the adult power figures. They, therefore, tend to become rebellious rather than collaborative.

5. Much of the normal communication between group members which would support group development is blocked by the routines and demands of the adult classroom leadership.

6. There is also commonly a great deal of blocking by adults of affective subgroupings, such as clusters of boys and girls who like each other or subgroups which are compatible in other ways. Adult leadership tends to distrust or fear such subgroupings and therefore rejects and drives underground many of the patterns of potential collaboration which exist in the group.

Implications for Coping with Peer Group Phenomena

1. Identify and recognize the unique individual resources of each classroom member. Every member of a classroom group has certain unique background experiences, knowledges, skills, and contacts with resources that are relevant to various types of classroom activities. In some classrooms the group has developed an interview schedule for finding out "who is good at doing what." In one fifth-grade classroom, students paired up to interview each other and then compiled a list of individual resources which were posted on the wall as a directory of "who's good at what around here." This recognition of individuality and legitimization of the importance of personal resources as a source of contribution and influence in the group usually has a very significant influence on self-evaluation and the motivation to be an active contributor and learner.

2. Establish procedures for inter-peer resource use. A directory such as indicated above can become the basis for a very active program of peers seeking help from each other. The objective of the instructional

leader is to develop a group norm which considers seeking help from a fellow class member, a sign of strength rather than weakness. The amount of teaching and learning that can happen with this type of mechanism is far greater than the limited resources that a single teacher can give.

3. Develop the group's own mechanisms of critical and supportive feedback to its members. Often much of the energy of a potentially good teacher must go into efforts at social control and close supervision. The classroom peer group, even in the early elementary grades, has the potentiality for collaborating on the development of its own norms concerning desirable and unacceptable group member behavior. They can decide on appropriate procedures for giving critical feedback and imposing appropriate sanctions; and they can give supportive positive feedback.

4. Develop norms for responsible subgroup activity. The rewards of the subgroup work pattern are so great that the classroom group will be ready and able to arrive at their own norms about the responsibility of the subgroups for carrying out projects, providing their own leadership, asking for help from the teacher as a consultant when needed, and meeting deadlines. Because of the special interests or work style of some class members, the appropriate subgrouping may sometimes include "subgroups" of a single individual.

5. Encourage subgroups to choose their own leadership and make their own division of labor. Every group needs to face decisions when selecting representatives who will be most appropriate for carrying out certain tasks in the interests of the group. Letting subgroups select their own leadership and make their own decisions about the division of labor are critical aspects of effective peer group development.

6. Adopt the role of consultant. Teachers can greatly facilitate the learning process if they periodically take the role of consultant to the group, helping it to struggle with impulsive immaturity, to develop skills in goal setting and conflict resolution, and to cope with the frustration of work achievement. If teachers become consultants on work strategies and on the interpersonal processes of group functioning, they will greatly enhance the quality of education.

We hope this provides helpful examples of some of the ways in which

the resources of social psychology can be applied in analyzing classroom phenomena and drawing implications about effective courses of action which make the teaching-learning process more productive and exciting. Leaving the classroom, we will now turn to a fourth area for applying social psychology to the educational system and look at some of the phenomena of faculty leadership and staff development.

Utilizing Social Psychology to Improve Staff Development, Staff Functioning, and the Role of the Administrator

Some Phenomena of Interest to the Social Psychologist

The social psychologist is very interested in the fact that all small classroom groups are embedded in a larger system--the school building with its staff and many operations, including a distinctive leadership and government system, as well as a relationship to other school buildings and to the total system. Some of the phenomena which social psychologists have observed and explored in the operation of building leadership, faculty functioning, and total school operation are the following:

1. Although the faculty members work in close proximity to each other in their classrooms, cope with many of the same educational problems, and explore similar educational problems and educational practices, there is minimal communication between faculty members about their teaching practices, and very little exchange of experience and sharing of experimentation. Social psychologists have discovered that there are many restraints felt by teachers against "blowing their own horn" and many restraints among colleagues about asking each other for help.

2. There are strong negative forces against working together in various kinds of team teaching patterns. Typically, the skills of teaming up and collaboration seem to be lacking.

3. Although there is much discussion of individualizing instruction, there is remarkably little sharing of information between colleagues from one year to the next about individual students and their needs. In addition, the appropriate designs for individualizing student learning opportunities are lacking.

4. Observation of faculty meetings indicates very low involvement and participation in the meetings and in general a negative attitude

toward time spent in such meetings.

5. There is also a very negative attitude about being involved in committee work since staff feel that it is a very low priority or even a waste of time.

6. Observing the role taking of principals, it is noted that a majority of them prepare the agenda for staff meetings by themselves and demonstrate very little orientation toward or skill in leading discussions, stimulating participation, or using subgroups.

7. Although many, even a majority, of the staff may feel quite critical of the leadership role of principals and wish they would change their behavior in a variety of ways, there is a conspicuous lack of staff initiative to give feedback to the administrator or to volunteer to share responsibility for various activities.

8. The teachers, in fact the total staff, indicate very little enthusiasm for seeking out and utilizing inservice growth experiences or for becoming involved in planning professional development programs for themselves. Their attitude seems to be that having completed a preservice educational program and having been certified is equivalent to "having passed the test."

9. Principals tend to see themselves as overburdened administrators rather than as consultants to their staffs on professional educational problems. Their staffs tend to see them as evaluators and office workers rather than as supportive colleagues and consultants.

10. There tends to be an active collusion between administrators and their professional staffs to resist the involvement of parents in the school program and to be negative about the utilization of volunteers in the classrooms.

This is a small sample of social-psychological observations and data from various inquiry projects into staff functioning and administrators' roles. What kinds of suggestions for action can we derive from social-psychological experimentation? A few are listed below.

Some Implications for Improving Staff Leadership and Operations

1. As in the relationship between students and teachers, it is also crucial to institute two-way feedback procedures between principals and their staff members. There are a number of tools available which

make it possible for principals and their staffs to periodically give feedback about perceived strengths and weaknesses and to make suggestions for desirable changes. The discussions growing out of these data provide the major basis for developing both staff morale and support for an effective and accepted leadership role.

2. In buildings where it has been tried, one of the most successful supports for staff development and relationships is to institute a regular program for "exchange of practice sessions." Through such a program faculty members, working in small groups, can identify the resources which they have to share (for example, successful teaching, supervisory, and counseling practices) and utilize an interview and documentation procedure so that practices can be quickly documented and made available to everyone. Before instituting these sessions, however, it has been found necessary to work first on the issue of restrained communication in order to establish group norms for open communication about professional practices.

3. Concern for the year-to-year continuity of a child's learning experience has led to the scheduling of teacher conference periods in the spring and the fall. By consulting each other during these periods, teachers can pass on information about individual learners and insure a continuity of learning opportunities for some of the students who are in need of such understanding and support.

4. Faculty meetings need to be carefully planned in order to become a vital part of building operation and staff development. They can be preplanned by a rotating agenda committee. Every meeting should include periods of subgroup work on various agenda items, and every agenda for the one to one-and-a-half hour staff meetings should include a thirty-minute period focused on some kind of professional development activity.

5. Committee work should be done on a voluntary basis; appropriate credit and rewards should be given.

6. The staff can be helped to take active initiative in defining their own preferred kinds of inservice learning opportunities; and consultants can be brought into the building to make inservice learning a part of staff life. In addition, a staff norm can be established which places a high value on the use of available human resources to improve the quality of educational experience. As a result, there can be an active cross-age helping program in the building--one which adequately

trains older students to work with younger ones on a voluntary basis. Also there can be an active use of parent volunteers and development of special programs for recruiting and training elders to provide some unique relationships with the pupils.

This is a brief sample of the derivations it seems appropriate to make from a social-psychological analysis of the typical school situation with respect to leadership and staff relations.

Developing an Effective School Climate with Social-Psychological Resources

The total school climate and operation of the school building community involve considerably more than relations within the classroom and relations within the faculty group. The total community of the building must live together and work together harmoniously and productively, with effective leadership of the operations. There are a variety of phenomena of school climate which have been of interest to the social psychologist.

Illustrative Social Climate Phenomena

1. One of the first things noted is that there seem to be several separate and relatively unrelated governance activities. One is the student council, another is the faculty council or executive committee. Still another is the school administrator, who works on plans and decisions alone, or only with personnel from the central school administration office. The student council sees itself as being impotent and having little relevance to important decisions and activities. The faculty is not organized as a planning and decision-making group and also feels quite impotent. The principal tends to feel very much alone in his decision making or only relates to the central office as a source of influence on such decision making. In general, there is very little linkage between these "centers of governance" and nobody feels very potent.

2. Looking at the student council, we find that typically the wrong students have been elected. This means that those students who occupy genuine positions of influence and opinion making are not the

ones who are elected--or try to get elected--as representatives and leaders of the student council.

3. There are few or no student-faculty committees. Even ad hoc task forces lack student involvement.

4. At least once a week there are mass assembly meetings of the student body. There is typically very little design, if any, for getting active participation of the students during these meetings or for getting them involved in any type of problem-solving concern or activity.

5. The whole program tends to separate and segregate the students of different age levels, as well as to inhibit faculty collaboration.

6. There seem to be no clear criteria as to what should be regarded as significant evidences of productivity in either the learning process or the action taking. It seems clear that the building's population is able to celebrate sports victories but has no basis or tradition for celebrating achievements of learning and action.

Improving School Climate

1. It appears crucial that the major governance of the school building should be a decision-making and planning council with representation of students, teachers, administrators, and parents. The principal would function as the leader of this group, and feel responsibility for helping it pose questions, collect facts, make decisions, and take action.

2. The principal makes systematic use of informal consultant panels of the key opinion leaders within the student body and of the influential figures within the faculty. The identification and utilization of the real influentials provides the basis for feedback and for two-way communication between the administrator, the student body, and the faculty.

3. A very important emphasis is placed on planning the learning program, both at the level of the classroom and at the level of the total building. At the building level, there is a joint planning task force composed of volunteers and elected representatives from the student body, the faculty, and the parents.

4. The total meetings of the building--the assemblies--are active participative workshops that are well planned and designed by a planning committee which includes students, faculty, and the administrator. These assemblies are usually a combination of stimulating new input from outside

resource persons and serious "implication thinking" by subgroups of three to five who think about the new input and feed in their ideas and conclusions.

5. The total building has clear cut goals for the year and there are total building celebrations as progress is made and goals are achieved. The total building community image of itself is that "we are a productive and progressive school and we have a lot of fun working at this together and always experimenting to discover ways to improve."

Applying Social Psychology to the Development and Operation of the School Community

A social psychologist is vitally interested in the ways in which the "significant others" in the life of a child impinge in constructive or non-constructive ways on the child's development--their interaction patterns and their collaboration or non-collaboration with each other. The school community certainly extends beyond the school building, if we include all those individuals who have an interest in the child's learning success at school and an interest in the kinds of attitudes and values the school is teaching and reinforcing. Let us look at some of the phenomena which are of interest to social psychologists as they look at the operation of the total school community.

A Look at the School Community

1. In spite of its name and objectives, we note that there is conspicuous absence of teachers from P.T.A. meetings, and a resigned acceptance of this absence, with negative feelings, on the part of parent participants. Of course, only a very small percentage of parents participate.

2. Very few teachers have ever been invited to the homes of their pupils. Some are quite angry about this and others say that they are glad it doesn't happen because it would be such a bother.

3. There is an almost complete lack of asking for volunteer work from parents, except for such occasional routine roles as providing transportation for a field trip.

4. A survey of after school activities reveals that students and

parents very seldom have any significant discussion about the learning tasks which students are supposed to work on at home. Some parents would like to be involved but are afraid to take the initiative. Others feel that it is "none of their business."

5. When there are rumors of parent-teacher meetings about activities at school, some students express great apprehension about the dangers of parents and teachers getting together, saying "I'll bet it would make it a lot tougher for us if they got together."

6. When children distinguish themselves, people at school are likely to attribute the success to a good school; but if children get into any kind of trouble, these same people are likely to attribute this to "a bad home."

7. There is an almost complete lack of dialog among administrators, parents, and teachers about how to deal with their joint responsibilities and problems, such as motivating children, supporting work at school, preventing rejection between peers, and supporting school work at home.

8. The increasing population of elders who no longer have children in school tend to vote against school financing and are quite negative about the school program.

Some Derivations for Dealing with These Phenomena

1. There is excellent participation in the annual fall planning institute of the educational community, in which parents, teachers, board members, administrators, and older students are involved. In mixed groups they work on defining important goals and on ideas for implementing these goals.

2. A wide variety of joint forces are involved in working on various implementation projects. Student volunteers are actively involved in most of the task forces.

3. At a parent-teacher meeting, a panel of parents and teachers are starting a "trigger discussion" on appropriate patterns of social relationship between parents and teachers. There is a very active expression of feelings about "not being invited into homes" and members of the audience pick up the discussion after the opening trigger dialogue.

4. The building has a volunteer coordinator of volunteers who have been actively helping the teachers identify what their needs for volunteer

help are and actively recruiting among the parents and other community people. There is a particular interest in recruiting and utilizing the elders who have time, wisdom, and interesting hobbies and who need to feel involved in the school, its program, and its fate.

5. Each semester there is an active, individual conference of parent, teacher, and student about each student's progress and goals for improvement.

6. Regular weekly seminars are conducted for parents by teachers on "how you can help at home," and weekly seminars are conducted for teachers by parents on "clues we've gotten from our children that might help improve the school program."

This is a brief sample of implications for action that derive from a social-psychological analysis of the dynamics of the school community.

Building the Socialization Community with Social-Psychological Resources

Some Observations on the Socialization Community

By the *socialization community* we mean all of the professional and non-professional workers in the community, as well as their agencies and organizations, which regard the rearing, educating, protecting, employing, and health of children and youth to be a part of their responsibility and function. In our paper "The Socializing Community" (Lippitt 1973), we identified ten different sectors of the community that exercise an active influence on the growing-up process. They include formal education agencies (public and private), the churches, the recreational agencies serving children and youth, the legal enforcement and protection agencies, the therapeutic and rehabilitative services, the employers of youth, the political socializers, the parents, and older members of the peer culture. Looked at from this perspective, the school is only one of the many interest groups in the community that have some responsibility for the learning activities and opportunities of the young as they grow toward mature community citizenship.

Social psychologists have observed and analyzed the function and interrelations of the parts of the socializing community. They have

noted a number of phenomena which need to be dealt with in providing a high quality environment for the development of children and youth.

1. Many of these agencies and groups compete for the time of some of the children and youth--particularly upper- and middle-class youth--and ignore other "hard to reach" populations, usually passing the buck by attributing the responsibility for working "with that population" to other agencies.

2. The professionals and the laymen in the different socialization sectors have quite different models in mind of what young people should become, how to help them learn and grow, and how they should behave.

3. Interviews with the leadership in the various sectors reveal a great lack of knowledge of the various resources and programs of the other agencies and groups.

4. There is a serious lack of coordination of programs, much duplication of services, and a pattern of non-cooperation in regard to the using of common physical resources, common budget resources, and the human resource pool of volunteers.

5. The sectors tend to compete for the available limited funds rather than collaborating in making a case to the community and society for a more appropriate allocation of resources to the rearing and education of the young. The economic and political leadership and the general public must be influenced to change their priorities, since rearing, educating, and physical well-being of the young in our society receive a much lower priority than in many other societies.

These and other similar observations and analyses lead us to a number of social-psychological derivations.

Some Derivations and Implications for Action

1. Almost all of the youth-serving and educational agencies and organizations have policy boards made up of key citizens of the community. There should be a coordinating council of board representatives and another coordinating council of professional administrators from the various agencies and groups to work together on consistent policies, programs, and plans for the education and development of the children and youth in the community.

2. In one community that explored the possibilities of coordination

there was a monthly meeting of the professionals and volunteers working directly with young people (including teachers, counselors, big brothers, Sunday School teachers, club workers, and employment officers) to exchange successful practices with each other. They developed a very successful inventory of creative, successful practices for helping children and youth grow up.

3. There needs to be an annual interagency planning and review conference to evaluate collectively the progress of the programs and their coordination and to project plans for the future.

4. A coordinating volunteer bureau needs to be developed to recruit, train, place, and support volunteers working in all of the youth-serving and youth-educating agencies, including the school system.

5. A directory needs to be developed and maintained that lists all the programs and services available for children and youth.

6. The superintendent of schools is one of the natural leaders to take initiative and responsibility for the development of such coordinating efforts. Instead of formulating the question as "what kind of help and collaboration do the schools need from the community," the question needs to be formulated as "how can the school join with other peer agencies and organizations in the community to create an effective coordination of a high-quality program of services for children and youth in the community?"

Applying Social Psychology to the Inservice Development of Educational Leadership in Elementary and Secondary Education

Key Elements of Inservice Staff Development

Before scanning the 40 reports on inservice training programs and activities retrieved through ERIC, we listed what we believe are some of the key elements of inservice staff development from a social-psychological point of view. Here are the ones we listed:

1. The training effort should be focused on peer groups, clusters, or staff units rather than individual trainees. The reason for this derives from data about the critical importance of peer norms and relationships as supports for attitude and behavioral change. When attempting to implement innovative educational practices, trainees need help to

overcome the restraints associated with taking risks and deviating from peer norms and practices.

2. If possible, the training program should include all the members of the educational team who impinge on the activities and environment of the students. This of course includes volunteers, para-professionals, specialists, and building personnel, as well as regular professional teachers. This is needed because of the inconsistency of input, attitudes, and values from different adult socialization agents in the child's environment--one of the critical problems for young learners and one of the factors which results in rejection of adult influence.

3. The content of the inservice learning program should focus on integrating personal development learnings with professional role skills and the commitment to experimental, innovative performance. An important ingredient of all such inservice designs would be opportunities for behavioral skill practice that allow the trainees to try out in a safe, non risk-taking environment the behaviors needed to actualize and implement the ideas and values acquired in their training activities.

4. The inservice training activities should not be discrete events but a sequence of activities and events related to each other which give a continuity of support and opportunities for trying out learnings in between sessions.

5. The leadership of the inservice training program should be a combination of inside and outside resources developed as an inside-outside training resource team.

6. The inservice trainees should be actively involved in setting the goals and defining the priorities of inservice training activities.

7. The program should include periodic evaluation of the utilization of learnings and identification of additional needed professional development opportunities.

8. The program of inservice training opportunities should be a combination of voluntary choice and built-in professional time which is a part of the regular work day. Inservice training activities should combine ingredients of "company time allocations" and personal time devoted to professional growth commitments.

9. The budgeting for inservice training should include a "trainer-of-trainer program" so that there is a design for continuous inservice

training of key personnel in the system as members of an inservice training team.

Observations on Current Inservice Training Activities

We recognize that the sample of 40 inservice training projects and activities reported in ERIC is probably not representative of the great range of inservice training activities currently used in school systems. But from our knowledge of this larger variety of activities, it is our impression that the ERIC sample is more innovative and more oriented toward the utilization of social psychology than the majority of the programs. In terms of the criteria listed above, the following observations of a few current training activities seem to be quite crucial:

1. The focus of almost all the projects is on individual teachers rather than staff units or other types of teams.

2. Although there is a strong interest in adding more social-psychological content and materials about human relations, they tend to focus on either personal growth, teaching skills, or some particular area of content. There is very little evidence of integrating these three foci.

3. There is also very little evidence of providing opportunities for behavioral skill practice as part of the training activities.

4. We found no example of programs focusing on the training of para-professionals or volunteers, or of educational teams including volunteers and para-professionals along with professional staff members.

5. There is a tendency for a program to focus either on diagnostic sensitivity and skill (for example, training teachers to use Flander's interaction schedules) or on concepts and information. There is very little indication of a focus on problem-solving efforts, integrating diagnostic training with intervention decisions and implementation skills.

6. The training programs tend to be "one-shot" focal events, such as workshops or institutes, rather than designs for continuity with follow-up and periodic renewal activities.

7. There seems to be a primary dependence on the use of outside trainer resources rather than on the utilization of outside-inside teams. There is very little evidence of a planned development of internal staff trainers at the level of the central school system office or at the level

of school buildings.

It seems quite appropriate to generalize that only a relatively small amount of the knowledge from applied social psychology abour conditions and designs for professional development is being applied to the inservice training activities of school systems.

Implications for Improving Inservice Training

1. A major source of motivation to become involved in continuing professional growth activities derives from personal involvement in the setting of program goals and professional development goals and in the setting of the criteria for evaluation of performance. Therefore, a critical ingredient of every inservice training program should be personal involvement in goal setting and evaluation criteria.

2. Because the school building is the key functional unit of the school as a social system, the building should be the focus for planning and designing inservice training activities. Developing a resource team to design and give leadership to inservice professional growth activities is a top priority. This team should include the best resource person or persons available from outside the school system who have training in applied behavioral science and resource persons from the inside who have time and responsibility allocated for inservice training activities. A desirable objective, sorely needed to spearhead and maintain a professional development program, would be to create a professional development team in each building as the resource for leadership, coordination, diagnosis, and feedback.

3. The continuing inservice development program needs to include orientation and practice in selecting and using resource persons and materials which all participants can define or are helped to define as relevant to their own development needs. A good inservice development program will develop a directory of the available resource materials and persons which have been discovered to be relevant to the needs of the staff members. It is particularly important that these resources include materials which provide the trigger for skill practice and strategies of innovation.

4. Opportunities for individualization of instruction are just as important at the staff development level as they are at the level of

classroom learning. Therefore, it is important that the design for inservice learning include opportunities for a variety of optional interest groups to have continuing projects of personal and professional development with whatever resource persons and materials are needed to support their activity.

5. The support for continuing motivation and effort are crucial to any program of staff growth and development. This involves the utilization of such crucial social-psychological principles as group decisions, commitments to peers in regard to one's growth, stated objectives, time commitments, and a system of recognition for progress and significant effort. A program of evaluation and feedback, periodic renewal sessions with resource persons and materials, a supportive peer group, and the motivation that comes from a sense of personal growth and growing satisfaction with the significance of the self as an important contributor to the lives and fate of others are all elements which will support participation in and use of the program.

6. We have already mentioned that a design for continuing exchange of innovative practices and a sharing of failures and successes in experimentation is one of the most important ingredients of a continuing professional growth program. This requires the utilization of some of the tools which have been developed for interviewing and for documentation, identification, and evaluation of innovative educational practices in teaching, administration, counseling, or any other major role function.

7. To deal with the important problems of "vertical communication" between staff members of different levels of training and responsibility, another crucial element of inservice training design is development and support of "vertical educational service teams," such as a classroom teacher and the team of para-professionals and volunteers who together have the responsibility for delivering educational services to the same group of young learners. Leadership training for the team leader and team training for the total team represent some of the most critical and rewarding ingredients of a vital staff development program.

Applying Social Psychology to the Educational Tasks of Long- and Short-Range Planning

Most planning for the future in education, as well as in other functions of society, tends to focus on economic trends and projections of technological developments. Relatively little attention is given to projecting changes and trends in areas of social-psychological development. Therefore, we would like to illustrate four examples of projections that many futurists agree on and that require the application of social psychology in educational planning in order to deal creatively with these directions of change and development.

Trend 1: Occupational Changes toward Human Services Careers

Several studies of the future predict that current occupational trends will continue toward more and more service jobs--those providing services of various kinds to other human beings rather than relating primarily to machines, the soil, or other parts of the physical and technological environment. The predictions are that by 1980, 75 percent of the jobs will be human service activities. This prospect provides a tremendous confrontation for the curriculum in elementary and secondary education. The basic skills required for these human service jobs are those of interpersonal relations and sensitivity to the feelings and needs of other people. There is very little in our current curriculum that focuses on this kind of learning activity, although we do have a growing number of creative illustrations of the possibilities of developing curricula in the areas of interpersonal and social relations and human services. Many of the most relevant curriculum activities at the present time are labeled as "extra curricular," such as those that provide students with an opportunity to volunteer for various kinds of community service activities and the programs of cross-age helping which provide students with an opportunity to volunteer and receive training for helping younger students with a wide range of learning opportunities. Teaching applied social psychology and providing laboratories in social relations will increasingly become of critical importance as a basis of support for a wide variety of occupational choices and skills.

Trend 2: Changes in Life Style and Achievement Motivation

Most projections by futurist scholars indicate significant changes in attitudes toward achievement, work, and other crucial aspects of life style. It is predicted that there will be less and less tolerance for spending time and energy on what is felt to be meaningless or boring work activity. Already many companies are utilizing basic social psychology to experiment with ways of making work more meaningful, such as shifting from monotonous assembly lines to production teams which work together collectively to create the total product rather than carry out fragmented aspects of the work task. The balance between leisure time and work will shift and each individual will have more and more confronting decisions about how to spend time which is not required for maintaining the basic economic necessities of life. These changes confront the school with exciting curriculum challenges such as developing significant learning sequences focused on life planning, developing and clarifying personal values, and experimenting with meaningful decisions about work, play, voluntary service to the community, and self-development.

Trend 3: Changes in Relations between the Generations

There is general agreement among futurists that there will continue to be major changes in the patterns of family life, in parent-child relations, and in relationships between olders and youngers in the society. Margaret Mead has suggested that because of the greater rate of change in society, life style, and value orientations, the olders must develop just as active a sense of responsibility and skill for learning from the youngers as the youngers must develop toward the olders. There is growing evidence that elementary and high school students find it rewarding and easier to interact and receive counseling from the "grandparent generation" than from the parent generation. This fact is being used very creatively in a number of school systems.

The sexual revolution is confronting the school with critical and exciting responsibilities for designing basic learning materials and opportunities in the areas of male-female relationship development and collaboration. Similar opportunities confront the schools in the application of social psychology to value inquiry and to decision making about the use of chemical stimulation and other approaches to extending

and intensifying human experience in all dimensions.

The trends toward equalization of power between the elders and the youngers in the society means that the school faces a tremendous responsibility in educating the young to develop creative and effective skills in dealing with confrontations with authority and in negotiations around differences in values and needs. There is a particular responsibility to train students in skills of collaboration with very heterogeneous groups, composed of people of different ages, sexes, and races, and of different ethnic and national backgrounds.

Trend 4: Changes in the Meaning of Education

One of the most basic learnings from social-psychological research is that voluntary involvement and commitment to a learning task is crucial to the internalization and utilization of that learning as a part of one's intellectual and behavioral resources. Trends toward equalization of power between producers and consumers, between teachers and learners, and between helpers and clients clearly means that the school will increasingly be facing the challenge and responsibility of discovering ways of creating learning opportunities and programs which are based on voluntary participation and commitment and therefore have a strong base of sharing and planning between teachers and learners. Social psychology has a great deal to contribute to such issues as the appropriate size of learning groups for various types of learning activities, ways of developing peer group norms which will provide the continuing support for the motivation to learn, and styles of leadership by teachers which will provide exciting stimulation to growth rather than the apathy, resistance, and low-level participation which are so typical in today's classrooms.

It is indeed possible to use social-psychological knowledge in educational planning. We have found it very exciting, in working with school boards and administrator-teacher teams on the challenges of long-range planning, to discover their great readiness to utilize applied social psychology in the planning process and in clarifying significant images of the future which are relevant for planning; and then to work through a disciplined process of implication statements and alternative for action; and to organize planning task forces to involve the staff, parents, and

students in arriving at meaningful consensus and commitment to goals for creative development of the educational process and the educational community.

Applying Social Psychology to the Utilization of Social Knowledge for Improving Education and Coping with Resistance to Change

One of the most serious confrontations in all areas of human enterprise is the tremendous lag between the discovery of new knowledge and its utilization to improve the various functions of society. This is critically true in all areas--business enterprise, political leadership, the delivery of health care, the functioning of the church, the operation of the schools, the growing of food, social welfare practice, and the maintenance of human and physical ecology. Some areas have been more effective than others in discovering ways of identifying significant new knowledge and moving more rapidly to utilize it. Agricultural practice is probably our best example of achievement in this area. This is due in a high degree to the systematic procedures and human roles which have been developed to bridge from basic research in agricultural experiment stations to demonstration farms to the dissemination of tested, validated new applications to the agricultural practitioners--the farmers. This has been done through a network of county extension agents, group meetings, and procedures to show the feasibility of new practices and to teach the skills of utilizing new tools and procedures.

Current Utilization of New Knowledge in Education

The field of educational practice is making slow but significant gains in closing the gap between the discovery of new knowledge and its use. Some of these gains are based on the improvement and use of technological facilities, such as computers, and on improved communication strategies. The crucial issues of utilization of new knowledge are social-psychological in nature. They have to do with problems of attitude change, value clarification, decision making, and group development, as well as with the action research process of collaborative try-out evaluation and adaptation of new concepts and practices to meet the needs

of specific local situations. In recent years, Rogers (1962), Havelock (1970), and others have clarified the procedures which educators need to use in order to close the gap between knowledge and its application in creative educational practice. As yet, very few schools have seriously coped with this challenge in developing staff roles and procedures to search for and identify relevant new ideas and practices and to convert them into processes of demonstration tryout and inservice training. Such processes are critical if the leadership of a school system seriously wishes to utilize the resources of knowledge for the systematic and continuing improvement of the quality of education.

Social-Psychological Processes for Planning Change

The social-psychological processes of change are of increasing interest to educators. The classroom teacher must learn the strategies and skills of the change-agent as they apply to the changing of anti-learning attitudes or the norms of group avoidance of work and accountability. The principal must learn to deal with the apathy and inertia of staff involvement in committees, working with parents, and using volunteers. The superintendent must learn the strategies and techniques of conducting dialog between community groups with conflicting values about education and the ways of involving the political and economic leaders of the community in the support of education.

The social psychologist sees some common derivations of change-agentry in all of these situations. For example:

1. Key members of the "target-for-change" population (for example, students, faculty, community) should be involved in thinking through and designing the steps of action.

2. The change agent must avoid labelling "resistance to change" as bad. It is a natural response of caution. Targets of change *should* question the advantages of new ways and the motives of change agents.

3. Usually a small tryout step to "see what it would be like" is an appropriate first step toward change.

4. A key aspect of change strategy is to have a stepwise plan, with careful evaluation of progress toward the change goal and "celebration of small successes," rather than frustrated depression because "we are so far from where we ought to be."

5. Planners of change goals and change actions must explore ahead to locate possible undesirable side-effects, backlashes, and traps of non-involvement of those whose participation is needed.

6. Unless those who are the targets of change are involved in the effort as collaborators, failure or short-lived success is almost a certainty.

7. Asking for feedback, and listening to it, and revising one's efforts on the basis of it are core skills of all effective change agents.

All of us are, and need to be, change agents if we are to be effective educators. But unless we function with awareness and planfulness, our change efforts are likely to be sensitive mostly to our own needs and insensitive to the needs and readiness of others. So, "planned change" is a crucial part of the process of improving the quality of all aspects of education.

Using Social Psychologists as Resources

Social psychologists, like the professional in any discipline, are by no means a uniform breed. They present a very wide spectrum of orientations and interests--from individuals preoccupied almost exclusively with laboratory experimentation to those who have their main interests in studying the various phenomena related to the communication of ideas, including educational ideas. They differ greatly in their values and interests, and in their readiness and ability to provide consultation to those in the community who have an interest in finding ways to improve the processes of leadership, decision making, and social functioning. We have observed a great variety of creative uses of social psychologists by school systems and have identified the following nine patterns of utilization.

1. As a Research Retrieval Resource. The educational administrators, or a committee or task force in the school, may be interested in discovering research relevant to the development of effective grouping practices. Many social psychologists can be of great assistance in identifying research relevant to the questions of group size and composition,

helping create some appropriate generalizations, and helping a committee derive implications from these generalizations to test out in practical experimentation. This research derivation and identification procedure has been developed as a practical tool in the report entitled "The Research Derivation Conference" (Lippitt 1971).

2. As a Referrer to Other Resources. Another relatively simple use of social psychologists, as well as other scholars, is to make an appointment to interview them about a particular area of interest, seeking referrals to resource literature which may be relevant for the educator or the educational team to pursue through reading and also locating other resource persons who may be identified by the first informant.

3. As a Consultant to Top Leadership. Some school administrators have found it very appropriate to employ a procedure frequently used by industrial management of making a continuing periodic use of a social psychologist as a consultant on questions of leadership strategy and decisions about organizational structure and functioning.

4. As a Member of a Periodic Assessment Team. A number of school systems have recognized that in dealing with questions of accountability and in making continual efforts to improve the quality of education there is need for a procedure of periodic review by "visiting teams." Such teams can make an objective review, become sensitive to both effective change and resistances to change, give the kind of feedback needed by the school system to continually improve its structure and processes and to provide motivation by objective evidence of progress and by clarification of values and goals.

5. As Curriculum Development Demonstrators. Taking the model of the demonstration farm in agriculture, several school systems have made temporary use of social psychologists to function as classroom teachers in the development of new curricula in areas of core psychological content, such as behavioral science courses in social studies and courses in human relations, interpersonal relations, family development, and life planning. Usually one or two regular teachers work with the temporary resource person to develop the content and procedures and to continue the course after the temporary assignment of the outsider is completed.

6. As an Educational Innovation Consultant. Perhaps one of the most frequent uses of the applied social psychologist is as a consultant

to some internal team which has a responsibility for improving some aspect of the educational program, such as curriculum, teaching methodologies, school government, school-parent relations, or school-community relations. In this role the social psychologist works with the inside team to clarify objectives and plan steps of action, and often functions as a process consultant in helping the group look at their own procedures in order to become more effective as a working team.

7. As an Inservice Trainer. One of the most frequent uses of the applied social psychologist is as a leader of an inservice training activity for classroom teachers or administrative leaders in the school system. There is a trend for this inservice training activity to be a continuing series of sessions rather than the "one-shot affair in the fall."

8. As a Trainer of Internal Change Agents. Probably one of the most effective uses of the social psychologist is as a consultant trainer of members of the school system staff who have been delegated the role of serving as internal "education improvement agents" in the system or in their particular buildings. Several highly successful models of this process have been demonstrated. One of the most effective has been to develop "education improvement teams" in each school building, with the principal being one of the members of the team and with the outside behavioral scientist conducting a series of intensive training sessions with the teams and then providing continuing consultative support as teams experiment with various improvement projects in the operation of their building and in the teaching activities within the classroom.

9. As Third Party Linkers to Other Systems in the Community. One important but relatively undeveloped use of applied social psychologists is to help the school leadership develop coordinating and collaborative relationships with the leadership of other systems in the community that are involved in the education and development of its children and youth. It has been found that there is great value in an objective and skilled "third party" providing some of the leadership in the explorations of collaboration among the key policy and program leaders of the various community enterprises.

We hope this will provide a suggestive inventory of some of the ways in which educational leaders have been utilizing the resources of

external social-psychological consultants. Even though it is incomplete, we hope it triggers ideas for experimentation.

Concluding Reflections and Recommendations

We hope these pages have opened up some perspectives about the potential resources of social psychology for readers in particular leadership roles and areas of responsibilities.

The tool kit bibliography which follows points the way to some further resources. The resources of ERIC are still another available major resource as are the publications of the Social Science Education Consortium (SSEC). Another important resource will be the Consultation Network of the Social Science Education Consortium. The Network is expected to be functioning by mid-1975. Network consultants will be certified as skilled professional helpers in one or more of the following areas: ERIC utilization, curriculum development, curriculum analysis, curriculum program planning, inservice training, and classroom learning technologies. The SSEC also offers professional training workshops for educational practitioners to help bridge the gap between social science concepts and resources and their utilization in educational practice.

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A SELECTED TOOL KIT OF AVAILABLE RESOURCES

The following inventory of resources with a social-psychological focus attempts to link the reader to carefully selected materials which are available to the educational practitioner who does not have access to scholarly libraries of journals.

This Tool Kit presents the social-psychological resources in six different categories:

1. Educational Social Psychology: General Resources
2. Social Psychology: The Curriculum
3. Social Psychology: The Classroom Teacher's Role and the Peer Learning Group
4. Social Psychology: Staff Leadership, Staff and School Climate Development
5. Social Psychology: The Development of the School Community and the Educational Community
6. Social Psychology: Knowledge Retrieval and Utilization

For these resources available through the ERIC system, we have included educational document (ED) numbers in the appropriate citations (for example, ED 052 154). If an ED number had not yet been assigned when this publication went to press, an alternative identification number is given (for example, SO 007 911).

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